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**Nonlinear Theory and Experimental Observations
of the Local Collisional Rayleigh-Taylor Instability
in a Descending Equatorial Spread-F Ionosphere**

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NONLINEAR THEORY AND EXPERIMENTAL OBSERVATIONS OF THE LOCAL COLLISIONAL RAYLEIGH-TAYLOR INSTABILITY IN A DESCENDING EQUATORIAL SPREAD-F IONOSPHERE

INTRODUCTION

Recently, coincident rocket and radar observations of equatorial spread-F were made near Kwajalein in the Marshall Islands [Szuszcwicz et al., 1980; Tsunoda, 1980a]. The in situ rocket data showed major plasma depletions distributed throughout a downward moving F-layer with regions of smaller scale in situ irregularities tending to be collocated with positive gradients of electron density. The VHF radar measurements showed that the backscatter "plumes", in addition to having large vertical extent from the bottomside to the topside [see also Kelley et al., 1976; McClure et al., 1977; Woodman and LaHoz, 1976], were identifiable with the plasma depletions [Tsunoda and Towle, 1979; Tsunoda, 1980b] and could be characterized by a growth and decay phase [Tsunoda, 1980a]. The recent rocket/radar comparison [Szuszcwicz et al., 1980] specifically showed that the most intense radar returns in the topside F-region were collocated with the upper region of a decay-phase depletion.

Several features of the small scale irregularity ($\lambda \leq 3m$) signatures seen by the radar backscatter can be explained by various plasma kinetic instabilities [for a review, see Ossakow, 1979] which are presumably driven by steep gradients within developing plasma bubbles. On the other hand, much evidence now exists that the large scale irregularities result from a Rayleigh-Taylor instability [Balsley et al., 1972; Haerendel, 1974] driven by the ambient bottomside plasma density gradient. Global [Scannapieco and Ossakow, 1976; Ossakow et al., 1979; Zalesak and Ossakow, 1980] and local [Keskinen et al., 1980] numerical simulations of the collisional Rayleigh-Taylor instability have successfully reproduced the large plasma density depletions (bubbles) and associated spatial power spectra that have been experimentally observed.

Manuscript submitted September 30, 1980.

The most recent in situ rocket observations [Szuszczezewicz et al., 1980] were made in an F-layer that was moving downward, implying the existence of a large scale westward electric field. The importance of this electric field in describing the development of plasma bubbles has been discussed by several authors [Ossakow and Chaturvedi, 1978; Ossakow et al., 1979; Ott, 1978; Anderson and Haerendel, 1979]. However, all previous analytical and numerical studies of the nonlinear collisional Rayleigh-Taylor instability have not included the effects of an upward or downward moving F-layer in realistic geometries, nor have they had the opportunity for an almost ideal comparison with experimental results.

In this paper we study the nonlinear evolution of the collisional Rayleigh-Taylor instability in a vertically convecting F layer using both analytical and numerical techniques. In addition we compare the simulations with the recent in situ rocket data which provided direct measurements of gradient scale lengths and density fluctuation power spectra.

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

By 2100 (LT) on 17 July 1979 the bottomside of the F-region at Kwajalein had risen to an approximate altitude of 400 km. The F-layer then began a downward drift with an approximate velocity $V_D \approx 10$ m/sec [Szuszczezewicz et al., 1980; R. Tsunoda, private communication, 1980] and a simultaneous onset of spread-F. With the F-layer drifting downward and spread-F conditions continuing, a rocket (designated PLUMEX I) was launched (00:31:30, July 17, 1979 LT) when the bottomside F-layer had descended to an altitude below 300 km.

A pair of pulsed probes [Szuszczewicz and Holmes, 1977; and associated references] were diametrically extended from the forward end of the rocket payload. The sensing elements, constructed from tungsten wire, were isolated from their extension booms by coaxial guard electrodes driven at the same potential as the probes themselves. One of the probes, defined as the I-probe, operated with a baseline voltage $V_B \approx -1v$, yielding net ion baseline current I_B^i . The other probe, defined as the E-probe, operated with $V_B \approx +2v$, yielding net electron baseline current I_B^e . Both probes generated complete current-voltage characteristics in $\tau_s \approx 400$ msec, yielding absolute values of N_e and T_e at an approximate 2.5 Hz rate. Maximum I_B sampling occurred at 2048 Hz, resulting in 0.5 meter spatial resolution for relative electron density fluctuations at a vehicle velocity of 1 km/sec. (See Szuszczewicz and Holmes, 1980 for instrument details and complete payload configuration.)

Figure 1 displays the upleg measurements of relative and absolute electron density as extracted from the pulsed-plasma-probe data. Absolute values of electron density were determined by conventional analyses of Langmuir probe characteristics [Chen, 1965] with appropriate care to eliminate perturbing effects of surface contamination [Szuszczewicz and Holmes, 1975], density fluctuations [Holmes and Szuszczewicz, 1975; Szuszczewicz and Holmes, 1977] and magnetic field effects [Szuszczewicz and Takacs, 1979]. Analysis of approximately 25 characteristics were executed over the F-layer from 340-560 km. In each case a conversion coefficient $a \equiv N_e [cm^{-3}]/I_e(V^+)$ was determined so that the $I_e(V^+)$ profile in Figure 1 could be directly scaled to absolute electron densities. This procedure yielded $a = (5.5 \pm 0.5) 10^{10}$ electrons $cm^{-3} A^{-1}$. The results in Figure 1 show the F-peak at 375 km with a maximum density of $1.3 (10^6) cm^{-3} (\pm 10\%)$. The probe measurements also revealed a number of major depletions ($\delta N_e/N_e^0 \leq 90\%$) distributed throughout

the F-region. Each of the depletions has been shown to have its own set of smaller scale irregularities [Szuszciewicz et al., 1980; Szuszciewicz and Holmes, 1980] with the most intense percent fluctuations occurring on the bottomside gradient near 270 km (Region "C" in Szuszciewicz et al., 1980).

The pulsed probe data provided an excellent opportunity for comparison with the numerical simulations of the collisional Rayleigh-Taylor (R-T) instability at intermediate wavelengths (e.g., Keskinen et al., 1980). Attention is focused on the depleted structure on the bottomside F-layer gradient near 270 km which is believed representative of the mid-phase development of the R-T process. (We will follow Szuszciewicz et al., 1980 and refer to this domain as region "C".) An expanded view of this domain (Fig. 2) shows that it is not a single macroscale depletion but a region of contiguous large scale structures extending over a total altitude domain of about 12 km. (Vehicle velocity in region "C" was 2.4 km/sec.)

Typically, computer simulations employ several values for the zero-order gradient scale length

$$L = \left(\frac{1}{N_e^0} \frac{dN_e^0}{dy} \right)^{-1}$$

and initialize the simulation with a two-dimensional perturbation. In the work of Keskinen et al. [1980] L was selected to be 5, 10 and 15 km and the perturbation took the form([Chaturvedi and Ossakow, 1977]).

$$\frac{\delta N_e(x,y,t=0)}{N_e^0} = (10^{-4}) \sin(k_y y) \cos(k_x x) + 2(10^{-6}) \sin(2k_y y)$$

with k_x and k_y being the horizontal and vertical wavenumbers, respectively. Both k_x and k_y were set equal to $2\pi/960$ m in the simulation. In addition, the computation assumed that L was centered at 300 km. Under actual conditions encountered in PLUMEX I, the bottomside F-layer gradient extended from 240 to 290 km.

The question of gradient scale length can be studied in Figure 3 where it is shown that the bottomside gradient (encompassed in the 105-125 sec time frame) is not characterized by a single value of L. Experimentally, L was computed according to $\langle I_B \rangle (dI_B/dy)^{-1}$ with $\langle I_B \rangle$ and the altitude derivative determined from sliding linear fits to the I_B data set. In region "C" ($114s \leq t \leq 122s$) L is seen to vary between 2 and 10 km, whereas adjacent domains ($110s \leq t \leq 113s$ and $122s \leq t \leq 126s$) can be characterized by $L = 25$ km.

Previous computer simulations [Keskinen et al., 1980], conducted with $L = 5, 10$ and 15 km, gave evidence that linearly unstable modes saturate by nonlinear generation of linearly damped vertical modes. The results yielded one-dimensional power laws (horizontal and vertical) that vary with a spectral index ($\equiv n$ in $P_N \propto k^{-n}$) between 2.0 and 2.5. To explore this result within the context of region "C", and to provide important comparisons with simulations in the next sections, power spectral analyses were conducted over sliding intervals of 2.4 km. The results, presented in Figure 4, show that the dominant behavior is $k^{-2.5}$ over the range $k = 2\pi/1\text{km}$ to $k = 2\pi/25$ m. The $k^{-1.85}$ behavior at $t = 116.001$ sec is a result of the very sharp density gradient (see region "C" Fig. 2) encompassed by the domain of the spectral analysis. (We note that the spectral analysis is executed on a time (frequency)-domain function I_B and the conversion to k-space is made under the assumption $\lambda = v f^{-1}$, where v is the vehicle velocity.)

In general we would conclude that our observed large depletions and spatial power spectra support the numerical simulations of Keskinen et al. (1980). Further testing of this support is achieved in the next sections which present simulations with $L = 8$ and 25 km with a downward drifting F-layer model that is more in keeping with the actual experimental conditions. The F-layer time-history can be important since unstable modes require times in excess of $4,000$ seconds to saturate...a time during which the F-layer encountered in PLUMEX I drifted downward in excess of 40 km.

MODEL EQUATIONS

The two fluid equations describing the Rayleigh-Taylor instability in the presence of a zeroth-order horizontal westward electric field \underline{E}_0 can be written, after invoking quasineutrality ($n_e \approx n_i \approx n$),

$$\frac{\partial n_\alpha}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (n_\alpha \underline{V}_\alpha) = -\nu_R (n_\alpha - n_{\alpha 0}) \quad (1)$$

$$0 = -T_e \nabla n_e - en_e \left(-\nabla \varphi + \frac{\underline{V}_e \times \underline{B}_0}{c} + \underline{E}_0 \right) \quad (2)$$

$$m_i n_i \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \underline{V}_i \cdot \nabla \right) \underline{V}_i = -T_i \nabla n_i + en_i \left(-\nabla \varphi + \frac{\underline{V}_i \times \underline{B}_0}{c} + \underline{E}_0 \right) \quad (3)$$

$$+ m_i n_i \underline{g} - m_i n_i \underline{v}_{in} \underline{V}_i$$

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{J} = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$\underline{J} = n_e (\underline{V}_i - \underline{V}_e) \quad (5)$$

where α denotes electrons (e) or ions (i) and n , φ , \underline{V} , ν_R , ν_{in} , \underline{B}_0 , and \underline{g}

are the density, electrostatic potential, velocity, recombination coefficient, ion-neutral collision frequency, magnetic field, and gravity respectively. In addition, we have written the total electric field $\underline{E} = -\nabla\varphi + \underline{E}_0$. All other symbols retain their conventional meaning. Since we will be interested in studying intermediate wavelengths ($\lambda \sim 100\text{m} - 1\text{ km}$) we ignore inertial and pressure effects in (1) - (5). Setting $\nabla\varphi = \nabla\varphi_1 + m_1 g/e$ [Ossakow et al., 1979], solving algebraically (2) and (3) for the velocities \underline{v}_e , \underline{v}_i , using (4) and the ion continuity equation (1), we find

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial t} - \frac{c}{B} (\nabla_{\perp} \varphi_1 \cdot \hat{xz}) \cdot \nabla_{\perp} n = -\nu_R (n - n_0) \quad (6)$$

$$\nabla_{\perp} \cdot (\nu_{in} n \nabla_{\perp} \varphi_1) = \frac{B}{c} (\underline{g} \cdot \hat{xz}) \cdot \nabla_{\perp} n + \underline{E}_0 \cdot \nabla_{\perp} (\nu_{in} n) \quad (7)$$

We have written eq. (6) and (7) in a downward moving frame whose velocity is $\underline{v}_D = c \underline{E}_0 \times \underline{B}/B^2 \approx 10\text{ m/sec}$ and have adopted the following coordinate system: the magnetic field \underline{B} is in the z-direction (north), the y-direction (vertical) denotes altitude with $\underline{g} = -g\hat{y}$ and the x-axis points westward. By linearizing (6) and (7) and writing $\delta n \equiv n - n_0$, $\varphi_1 \propto \exp [i(k_x x + k_y y) + \gamma_k t]$, $\underline{k} \cdot \underline{B} = 0$, and $|\underline{k}|L \gg 1$ we find

$$\gamma_k = \left(\frac{g}{\nu_{in}} + \frac{cE_0}{B} \right) \left(\frac{k_x}{k} \right)^2 \frac{1}{L} - \nu_R \quad (8)$$

where $\underline{E}_0 = +E_0 \hat{x}$, $L = \left(\frac{1}{n_0} \frac{\partial n_0}{\partial y} \right)^{-1}$, $k^2 = k_x^2 + k_y^2$.

From (8) we note that we recover the usual collisional Rayleigh-Taylor instability if $E_0 \rightarrow 0$. The growth rate γ_k is enhanced (reduced) by an

eastward (westward) electric field E_0 . We will be concerned only with a westward electric field ($E_c = E_0 \hat{x}$) which leads to a downward moving F layer.

NUMERICAL SIMULATIONS

By defining $n'(x,y) = n(x,y)/n_0(y)$, $\phi'_1(x,y) = \phi_1(x,y)/BL$, $x' = x/L$, $y' = y/L$, $t' = ct/L$ where $n_0(y) = N_0(1 + y/L)$ ($N_0 = \text{const.}$) is an equilibrium solution of (6) and (7) we can write (6) and (7) in dimensionless form as follows (after dropping primes for clarity):

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \phi_1}{\partial y} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \phi_1}{\partial x} \frac{\partial n}{\partial y} = \frac{n}{n_0} \frac{\partial n_0}{\partial y} \frac{\partial \phi_1}{\partial x} - \beta_1 (n - 1) \quad (9)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi_1}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi_1}{\partial y^2} + \left(\frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial n}{\partial y} + \frac{1}{n_0} \frac{\partial n_0}{\partial y} \right) \frac{\partial \phi_1}{\partial y} + \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \frac{\partial \phi_1}{\partial x} = -\beta_2 \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \quad (10)$$

where $\beta_1 = Lv_R/c$ and $\beta_2 = g/cv_{in} - E_0/B$ are dimensionless constants.

Equation (9) was integrated forward in time using a flux-corrected [Boris and Book, 1973] leapfrog-trapezoidal scheme [Zalesak, 1979] while eq. (10) was solved for the self-consistent potential ϕ_1 using a Chebychev semi-iterative multigrid technique [McDonald, 1980]. The computational grid described a small vertical slice oriented in the east-west direction of the bottomside equatorial F layer and is defined by 64 x 64 points with a constant mesh spacing of $\Delta x = \Delta y = 15\text{m}$ giving an altitude and east-west extent of 960 meters. Periodic boundary conditions were imposed on n/n_0 and ϕ_1 in both the x (east-west) and y (vertical) directions.

The in situ rocket data of Szuszcwicz and Holmes [1980] do not reveal the initial conditions from which the observed irregularities developed.

Many sets of initial conditions are possible. In the context of the experimental observations of an initially upward and then downward moving F layer [Tsunoda, 1980a; Szuszczewicz et al., 1980], we make the reasonable assumption that the irregularities, whose spatial power spectra are sampled in Region "C" [Szuszczewicz and Holmes, 1980] of the bottomside, originate at a higher altitude(s) y_0 at earlier time(s) and are convected downward by the ambient F layer. This is in agreement with the conclusions of Narcisi and Szuszczewicz (1980) in their analysis of ion composition measurements conducted on the same rocket. From previous numerical simulations [Keskinen et al., 1980] of the intermediate wavelength collisional Rayleigh-Taylor instability for bottomside gradient scale lengths $L = 5 - 15$ km at an altitude of 300 km, we found that a well-developed nonlinear regime could be achieved after a time $\Delta t \approx 10-15 \gamma_m^{-1}$ where γ_m is the maximum linear growth rate. We define the altitude of instability onset y_0 to be the position of the bottomside gradient at $\Delta t \approx 10-15 \gamma^{-1}$ sec prior to the time of rocket penetration. (The rocket penetrated region "C" on the bottomside at an altitude of 270 km.) This, of course, neglects the fact that $\gamma(y)$ will be decreasing since v_{in} and v_R will be increasing [see eq. (8)] for a downward moving F layer. In other words we wish to determine an altitude $y_0 - 15\gamma^{-1}(y)v_D = 270$ km where $v_D = 10$ m/sec. For $L = 8$ km (25 km) we find $y_0 \approx 335$ km (365 km). From the Jacchia [1965] model neutral atmosphere [Ossakow et al., 1979], $v_{in}(335 \text{ km}) \approx 0.3 \text{ sec}^{-1}$, $v_{in}(365 \text{ km}) \approx 0.18 \text{ sec}^{-1}$, $v_R(335 \text{ km}) \approx 1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ sec}^{-1}$, $v_R(365 \text{ km}) \approx 4.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ sec}^{-1}$ and $\Omega_i = 300 \text{ sec}^{-1}$. Coupling these considerations with the probe measurements of gradient scale lengths, two different numerical simulations were made using $L = 8$ and 25 km. Both simulations were initialized with the following density profile: $n(x, y, t = 0)/N_0 = 1 + y/L + \epsilon(x, y)$ where $\epsilon(x, y)$ is a random function

of position in the xy-plane with a white noise-like spatial power spectrum (no preferred wavelength) and a root-mean-square amplitude of 0.03.

Since the real space dimensions of the computational grid are 960 m by 960 m, the altitude dependent quantities $v_{in}(y)$ and $v_R(y)$ do not, at any fixed time, vary appreciably over the grid since their scale heights are much greater than the grid dimensions. In fact, these quantities can be fit very well with exponential variation in y , i.e., $v_{in}(y) \propto \exp(-y/L_{in})$ and $v_R(y) \propto \exp(-y/L_R)$ with $L_{in} \approx 55$ km and $L_R \approx 33$ km between the altitudes of 250 and 550 km using a Jacchia [1965] model neutral atmosphere [Ossakow et al., 1979]. However, over several thousands of seconds, v_{in} and v_R will change (increase) in a frame moving downward with velocity $v_D = 10$ m/sec. In order to compensate for this effect, we convert the spatial (altitude) dependence of v_{in} and v_R into functions of time by making the substitution $y \rightarrow -v_D t$. In other words, during the course of the simulations, $v_{in}(t) = v_{in}(t_0) \exp(v_D \Delta t / L_{in})$ and $v_R(t) = v_R(t_0) \exp(v_D \Delta t / L_R)$ where Δt is elapsed time and $v_{in}(t_0)$, $v_R(t_0)$ are the initial values depending upon initial altitude. In this simple model we ignore any variation of the bottomside density gradient scale length with altitude. We now present the important nonlinear aspects of these simulations.

Figure 5 gives an isodensity contour plot of $\tilde{\delta n}(x,y) \equiv \delta n/n_0(y)$, $\delta n = n(x,y) - n_0(y)$, at $t = 800$ sec for $L = 8$ km and shows that the random nature of the initial perturbations still prevails. The contours of the random initial perturbations in $\tilde{\delta n}(x,y)$ at $t = 0$ sec are very similar to Figure 5 but with more smaller scale structure. Figure 6 displays the evolution of $\tilde{\delta n}(x,y)$ at $t = 2000$ sec where some vertical elongation and steepening can be seen together with small scale irregularities. Figure 7 illustrates the

perturbation density contours at $t = 4500$ sec where further steepening and vertical elongation have occurred. This late time density configuration is similar to recent numerical simulations of the intermediate wavelength collisional Rayleigh-Taylor instability [Keskinen et al., 1980] under almost monochromatic initial conditions, i.e., with only two waves initially excited. The maximum percentage depletion ($\tilde{n} < 0$) in Fig. 7 was 56%. Similar density contour development and late time percentage depletion were found using $L = 25$ km and again starting from random initial conditions. These large depletions were also noted in the in situ rocket data of Szuszcwicz and Holmes [1980].

In Figures 8a and 8b we have plotted sample one-dimensional horizontal $P(k_x)$ and vertical $P(k_y)$ spatial power spectra for $2\pi/k_x$, $2\pi/k_y$ between approximately 100m and 960m in the nonlinear regime for $L = 8$ km at $t = 4000$ sec. These power spectra are obtained by integrating $|\tilde{n}(k_x, k_y)|^2$ over k_y and k_x , respectively. The spectral indices obtained from these power spectra are in agreement with those derived from bottomside irregularity power spectra as determined from rocket observations [Region "C" of Szuszcwicz and Holmes, 1980] in the wavelength domain λ : 25m - 1km (see Fig. 4) and recent simulations [Keskinen et al., 1980]. Similar power laws and spectral indices were found for the $L = 25$ km case but on a longer time scale.

NONLINEAR THEORY

We wish to interpret the evolution of long wavelength plasma irregularities in an upward or downward moving equatorial F region ionosphere in terms of coherent two-dimensional mode-coupling among collisional Rayleigh-Taylor modes. This type of analysis was also used to study large scale wavelengths excited by the gradient drift instability in the equatorial electrojet [Rognlien and Weinstock, 1974] and the saturation of the long wavelength local collisional [Chaturvedi and Ossakow, 1977] and collisionless

[Hudson, 1978] Rayleigh-Taylor instability in equatorial spread F. However, these latter papers did not include the effects of a convecting (rising or falling) background ionosphere which usually accompanies equatorial spread F. The linear growth rate γ_k (eq. 8) which contains the altitude dependent parameters v_R and v_{in} , and, by inference, the nonlinear growth rate will change in space and time in a vertically convecting ionosphere. Since with vertical drift velocities of the order of 10 m/sec the F region ionosphere can convect over a distance on the order of the scale height of v_{in} and v_R on time scales comparable to the nonlinear saturation times of the collisional Rayleigh-Taylor instability, this effect will be important.

We begin our nonlinear analysis with eq. (6) and (7) which can be written

$$\frac{\partial \delta n}{\partial t} - \frac{c}{B} \nabla_{\perp} \phi_1 \times \hat{z} \cdot \nabla n_0 + v_R \delta n = \frac{c}{B} \nabla_{\perp} \phi_1 \times \hat{z} \cdot \nabla \delta n \quad (11)$$

$$(c/B\Omega_i) \nabla_{\perp} \cdot v_{in} n \nabla \phi_1 = (g \times \hat{z}/\Omega_i + c v_{in} E_0/B) \cdot \nabla \delta n \quad (12)$$

where we have made the separation $\delta n = n - n_0$. We note that the addition of a large scale electric field E_0 in (12) adds only a linear term. The convective nonlinear term on the righthand side of (11) is the dominant nonlinearity since the ratio of the nonlinear terms in (11) and (12) is

$$(c/B\Omega_i) (\nabla_{\perp} \cdot v_{in} n \nabla \phi_1) / (c/B) \nabla_{\perp} \phi_1 \times \hat{z} \cdot \nabla \delta n \sim v_{in}/\Omega_i \ll 1$$

for two dimensional perturbations ϕ_1 and δn . This allows one to find the potential perturbation ϕ_1 for arbitrary density perturbation δn using a linearized version of (12), i.e.,

$$\frac{e\phi_1}{T} = -i\beta \frac{\delta n}{n_0} \quad (13)$$

where, keeping the same notation as Chaturvedi and Ossakow [1977] ,

$\beta = (g/v_{in})(k_x \Omega_i / k^2 c_s^2)$ with $c_s^2 = T/m_i$. Equation (11) can then be rewritten

$$\frac{\partial \delta n}{\partial t} = \gamma_k \delta n + \frac{c}{B} \nabla \phi_1 \times \hat{z} \cdot \nabla \delta n \quad (14)$$

with γ_k given by (8). If we take an arbitrary two-dimensional perturbation of the form

$$\frac{\delta n}{n_0} = A_{1,1} \sin(k_x x - \omega t) \cos k_y y \quad (15)$$

where the first subscript on A denotes the vertical mode number and the second subscript signifies the horizontal mode number, we find using (13) the associated potential perturbation

$$\frac{e\phi_1}{T} = \beta A_{1,1} \cos(k_x x - \omega t) \cos k_y y \quad (16)$$

Then the nonlinear self-interaction $\frac{c}{B} \nabla \phi_1 \times \hat{z} \cdot \nabla \delta n$ generates a term of the form $n_0 \alpha/2 A_{1,1}^2 \sin 2k_y y \equiv A_{2,0} \sin 2k_y y$ with $\alpha \equiv k_x^2 k_y g / k^2 v_{in}$ which is linearly damped by recombination using (14). This linearly damped mode

$A_{2,0}$ will interact through the nonlinearity in (14) with $A_{1,1}$ to give a nonlinear damping for the linearly unstable mode $A_{1,1}$ since

$$\frac{c}{B} \nabla \varphi_{1,1} \times \hat{z} \cdot \nabla \delta n_{2,0} = -2\alpha n_0 A_{1,1} A_{2,0} \sin(k_x x - \omega t) \cos k_y y$$

$$\cos 2k_y y.$$

In other words, a two dimensional linearly unstable perturbation with amplitude $A_{1,1}$ can generate a linearly damped vertical mode $A_{2,0}$ which, in turn, can react back to stabilize the $A_{1,1}$ mode.

In the frame of reference of a small localized region in the bottomside of a downward convecting F layer we assume $v_{in} = v_{in}(t)$ and $v_R = v_R(t)$ are monotonically smooth functions of time as in the previous simulations. Then for a general perturbation of the form

$$\frac{\delta n}{n_0} = A_{1,1} \sin(k_x x - \omega t) \cos k_y y + A_{2,0} \sin 2k_y y \quad (17)$$

we can write

$$\frac{\partial A_{1,1}}{\partial t} = \gamma_{1,1}(t) A_{1,1} - 2\alpha(t) A_{1,1} A_{2,0} \quad (18)$$

$$\frac{\partial A_{2,0}}{\partial t} = -|\gamma_{2,0}(t)| A_{2,0} + \frac{\alpha(t)}{2} A_{1,1}^2 \quad (19)$$

where now the growth rate $\gamma(t)$ and nonlinear coupling coefficient $\alpha(t)$ are functions of time since they contain altitude dependent quantities

ν_{in} and ν_R . In deriving (18) and (19) we have assumed that $\gamma(t)$ and $\alpha(t)$ are weakly time dependent. For $E_0 \rightarrow 0$ (stationary F region), we recover the results of Chaturvedi and Ossakow [1977] who treated γ and α as space and time independent. Since $\alpha \sim 1/\nu_{in}$, one observes that the nonlinear coupling decreases (increases) for a downward (upward) drifting F layer since ν_{in} increases (decreases). Assuming that a quasi-steady state is achieved at $t = t_s$ with $\partial A_{1,1}/\partial t \simeq \partial A_{2,0}/\partial t \simeq 0$, we obtain from (18) and (19)

$$A_{2,0}(t_s) = \gamma_{1,1}(t_s)/2\alpha(t_s) \simeq 1/2 k_y L \quad (20)$$

$$\begin{aligned} A_{1,1}(t_s) &= (2 |\gamma_{2,0}(t_s)| A_{2,0}/\alpha(t_s))^{1/2} \\ &\simeq ((k^2/k_x^2)(\nu_R(t_s)\nu_{in}(t_s)/gLk_y^2))^{1/2} \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

Since $A_{2,0}(t_s)$ is independent of ν_{in} and ν_R we note from (20) and (21) that the two dimensional spatial power spectra of the density fluctuations in a rising or falling F region ionosphere will have the oblique linearly unstable modes, e.g., $A_{1,1}$ being favored at low altitudes (increasing ν_R and ν_{in}) with the linearly damped waves, e.g., $A_{2,0}$ dominating at higher altitudes (decreasing ν_R and ν_{in}) with spatial power spectra $\propto k_y^{-2}$. Indeed for $k_y \simeq k_x$ we can write

$$A_{2,0}(t_s)/A_{1,1}(t_s) \simeq (1/2/2) (g/\nu_{in}(t_s)\nu_R(t_s)L)^{1/2}$$

so that at 300 km with $L = 25$ using a Jacchia [1965] model neutral atmosphere [Ossakow et al., 1979] we find $A_{2,0} \sim A_{1,1} \sim 1\%$ for $k_x L = 2\pi L/\lambda_x \simeq 50$ while at 425 km $A_{2,0}/A_{1,1} \sim 10$. A more detailed examination of the static and dynamic solutions of (18) and (19) will be reserved for a future report.

SUMMARY

We have performed analytical and numerical simulations studies of the collisional Rayleigh-Taylor instability in local unstable regions of downward-moving equatorial F layers. For ambient bottomside plasma density gradient scale lengths $L = 8$ and 25 km, we have demonstrated that large percentage relative depletions can develop on time scales of several thousands of seconds from purely random initial conditions. In addition we have shown that the one-dimensional spatial power spectra of these irregularities in the vertical and east-west directions conform to power laws $\propto k^{-n}$, $n = 2-2.5$ for $2\pi/k$ between 100m and 1 km. These results are in good agreement with our recent in situ rocket observations of intermediate wavelength ($\lambda: 25\text{m} - 1$ km) irregularities equatorial spread-F, presented here in this paper, complement previous local numerical simulations [Keskinen et al., 1980], and lend further support to the belief that the collisional Rayleigh-Taylor instability is responsible for large scale size irregularities in equatorial spread-F.

Future work will include global simulations of upward and downward moving equatorial F layers together with the inclusion of neutral wind effects.

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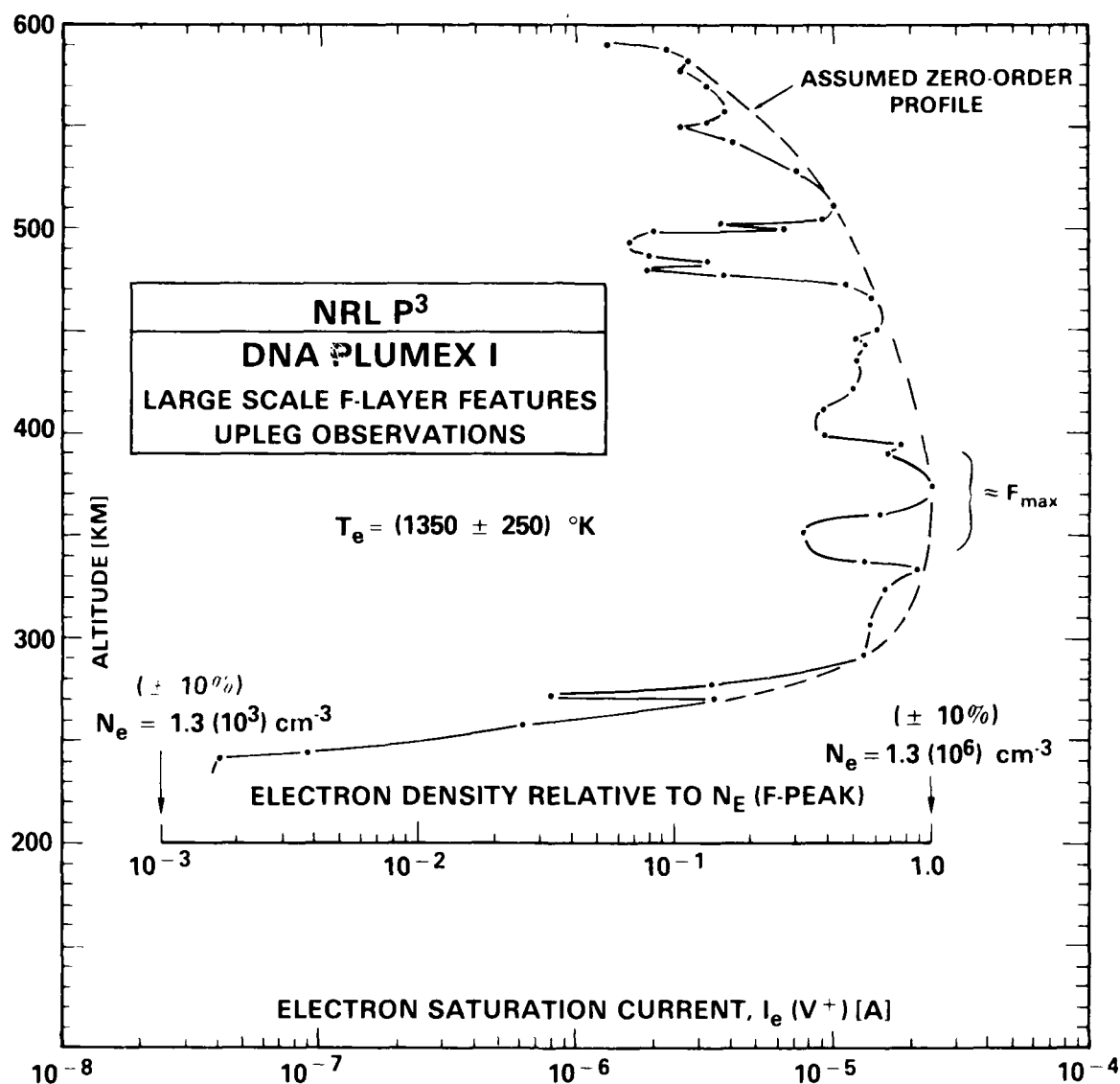


Fig. 1 — Relative and absolute ionospheric electron density profile determined in situ during the occurrence of equatorial spread F.

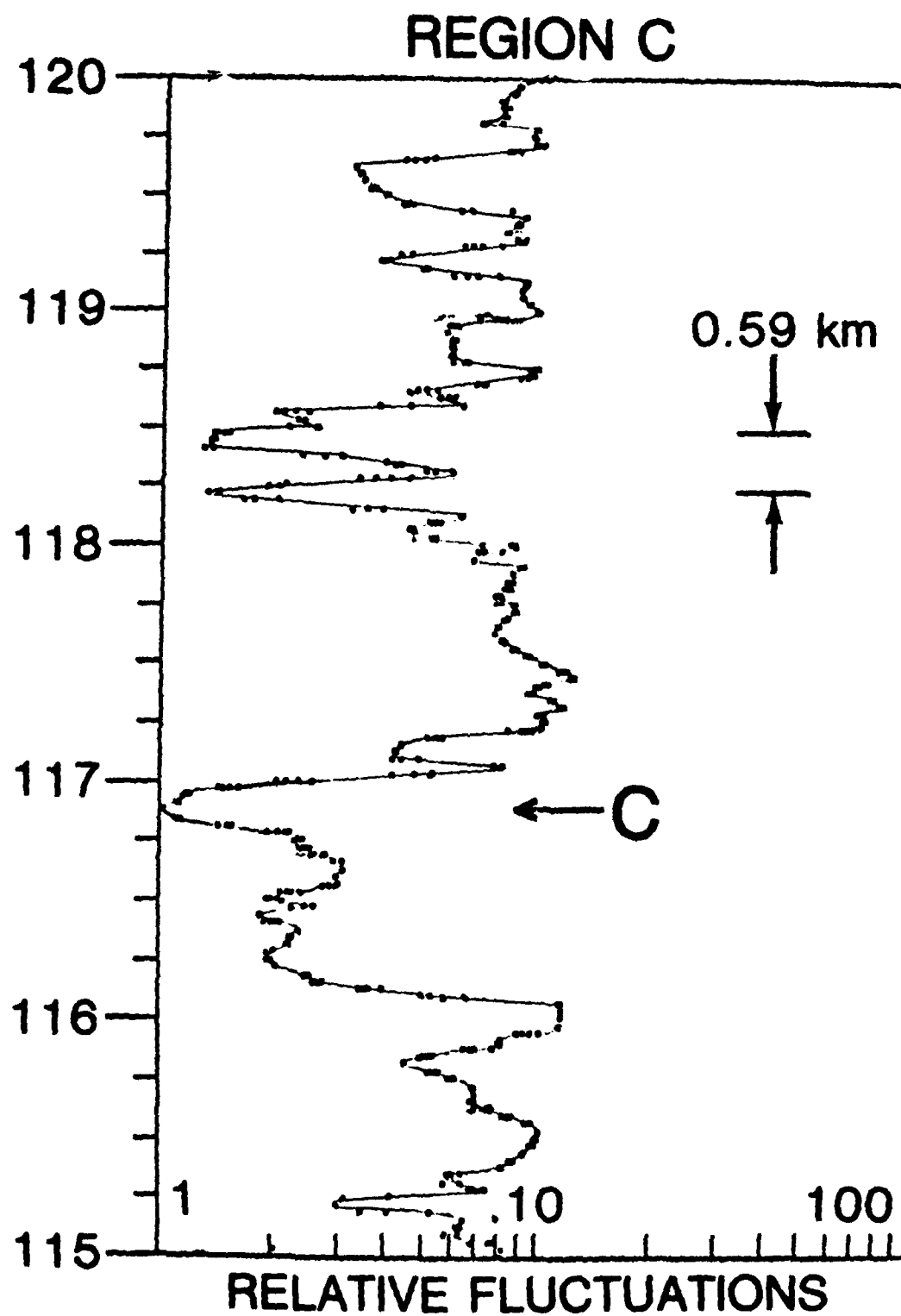


Fig. 2 — Expanded view of density fluctuation observed in the bottomside irregularity (Fig. 1) centered near 270 km. This is region "C" of Szuszczewicz et al. [1980].

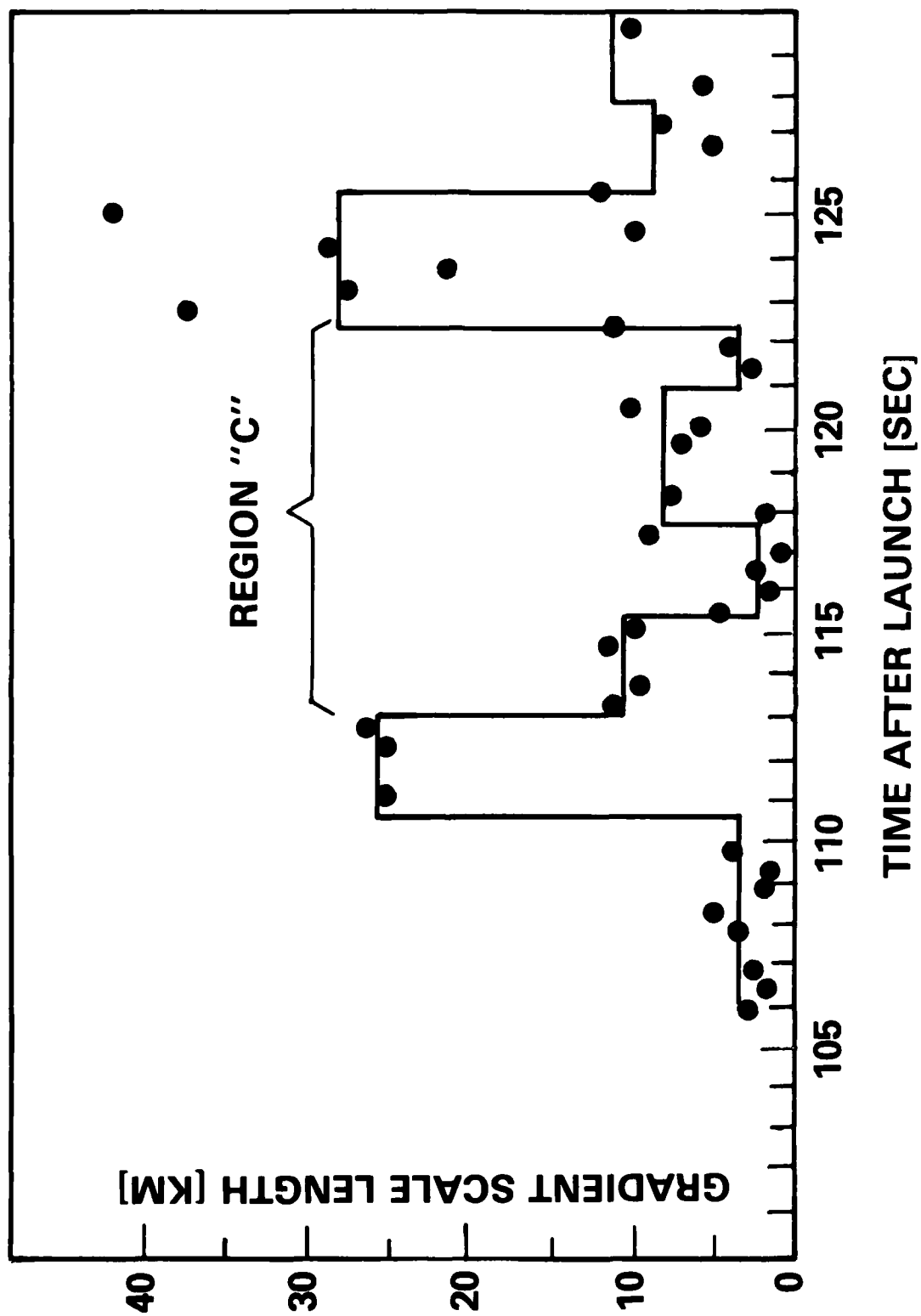


Fig. 3 — Gradient scale lengths on the bottomsides ledge of the F-region layer shown in Figure 1.

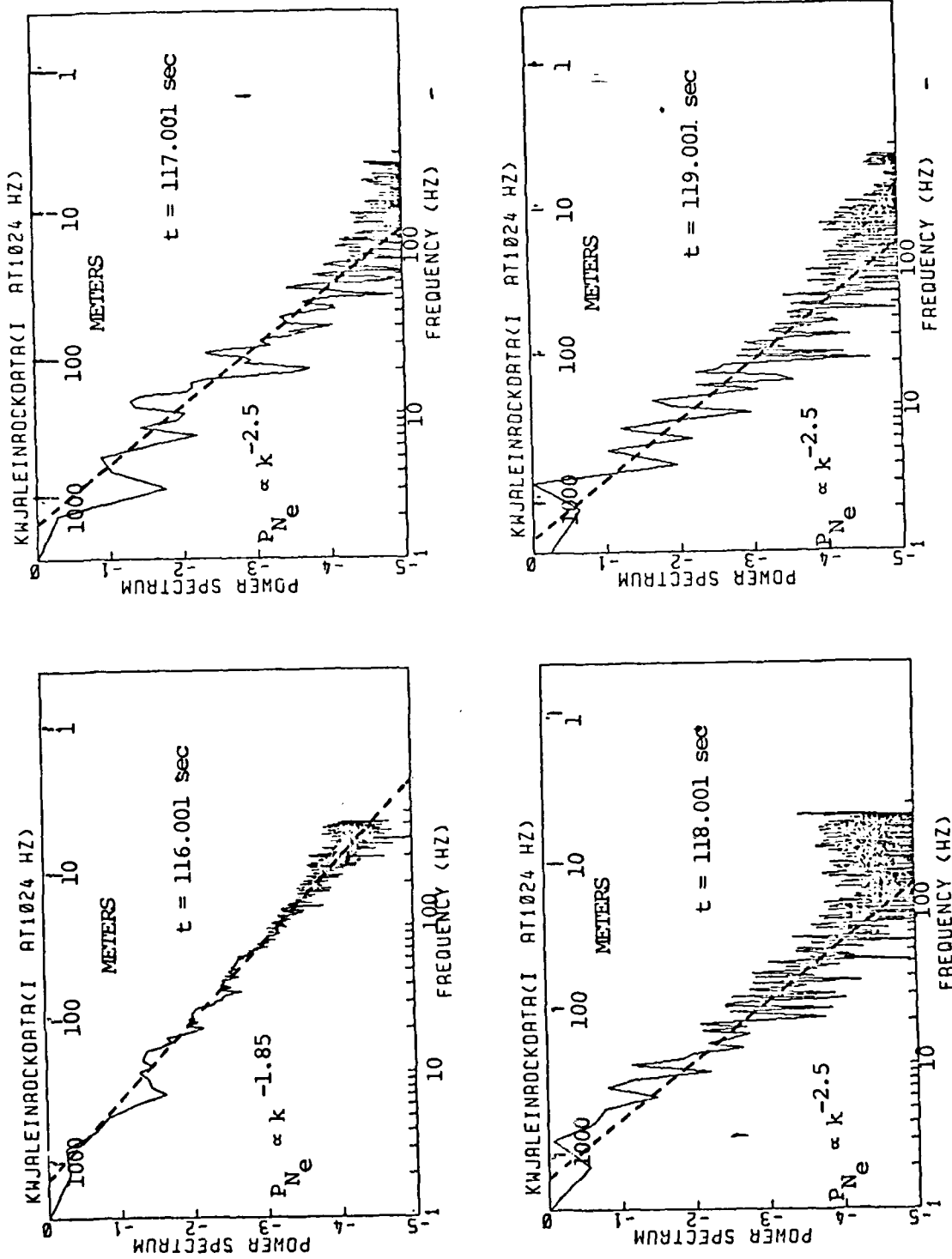


Fig. 4 — Power spectral analyses of density fluctuations in region "C" (Figure 2).

800 SEC

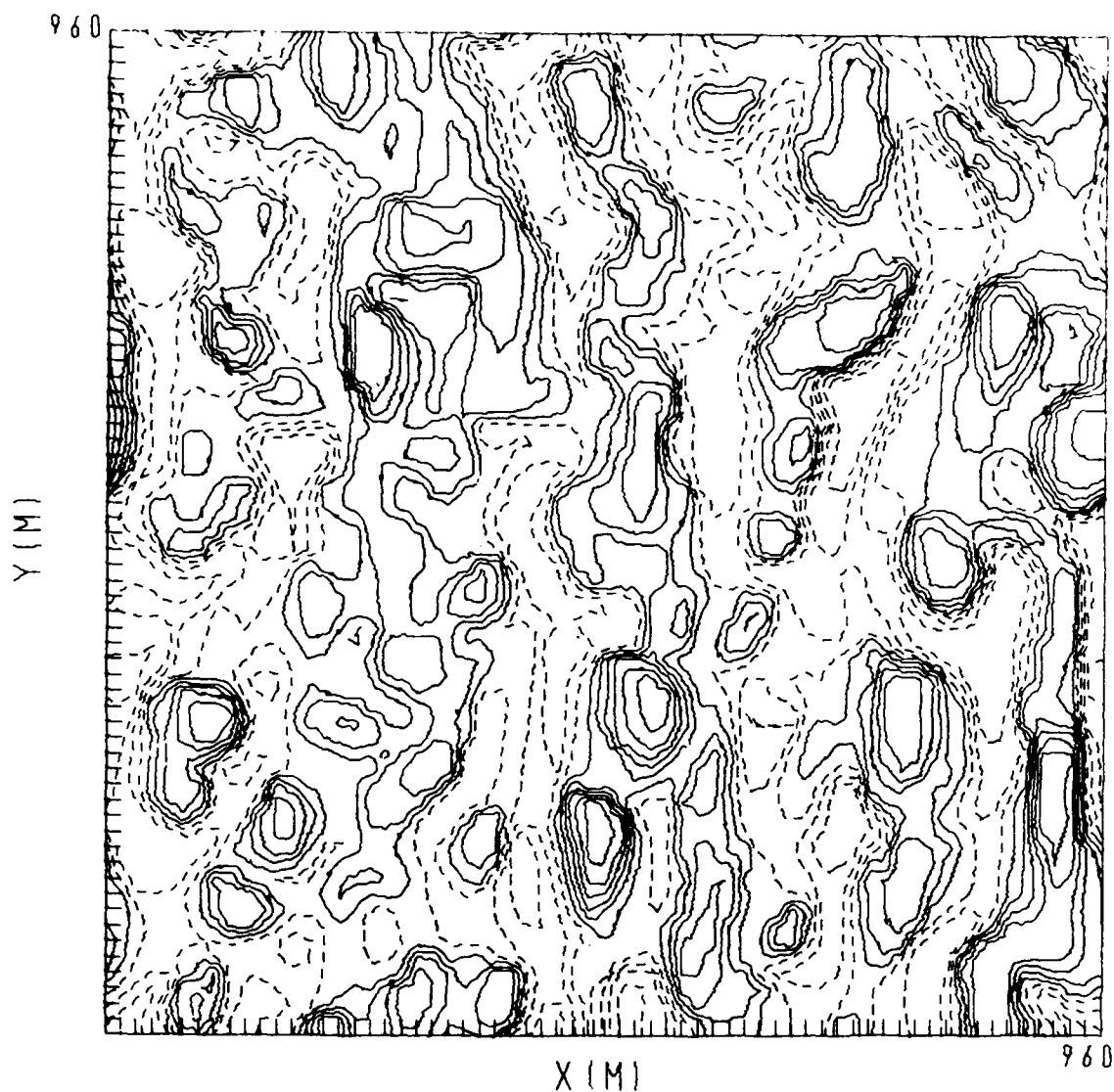


Fig. 5 — Isodensity contours of $\delta n(x,y)/n_0(y)$ for $L = 8$ km at $t = 800$ sec. Solid contours denote $\delta n/n_0 > 0$; dashed contours denote $\delta n/n_0 < 0$. Contours are evenly spaced with y axis vertical and x axis horizontal. Tick marks and numbers denote grid point locations and size of grid in meters, respectively. Maximum enhancement ($\delta n/n_0 > 0$) and depletion ($\delta n/n_0 < 0$) are $+4.8\%$ and -3.8% .

2000 SEC

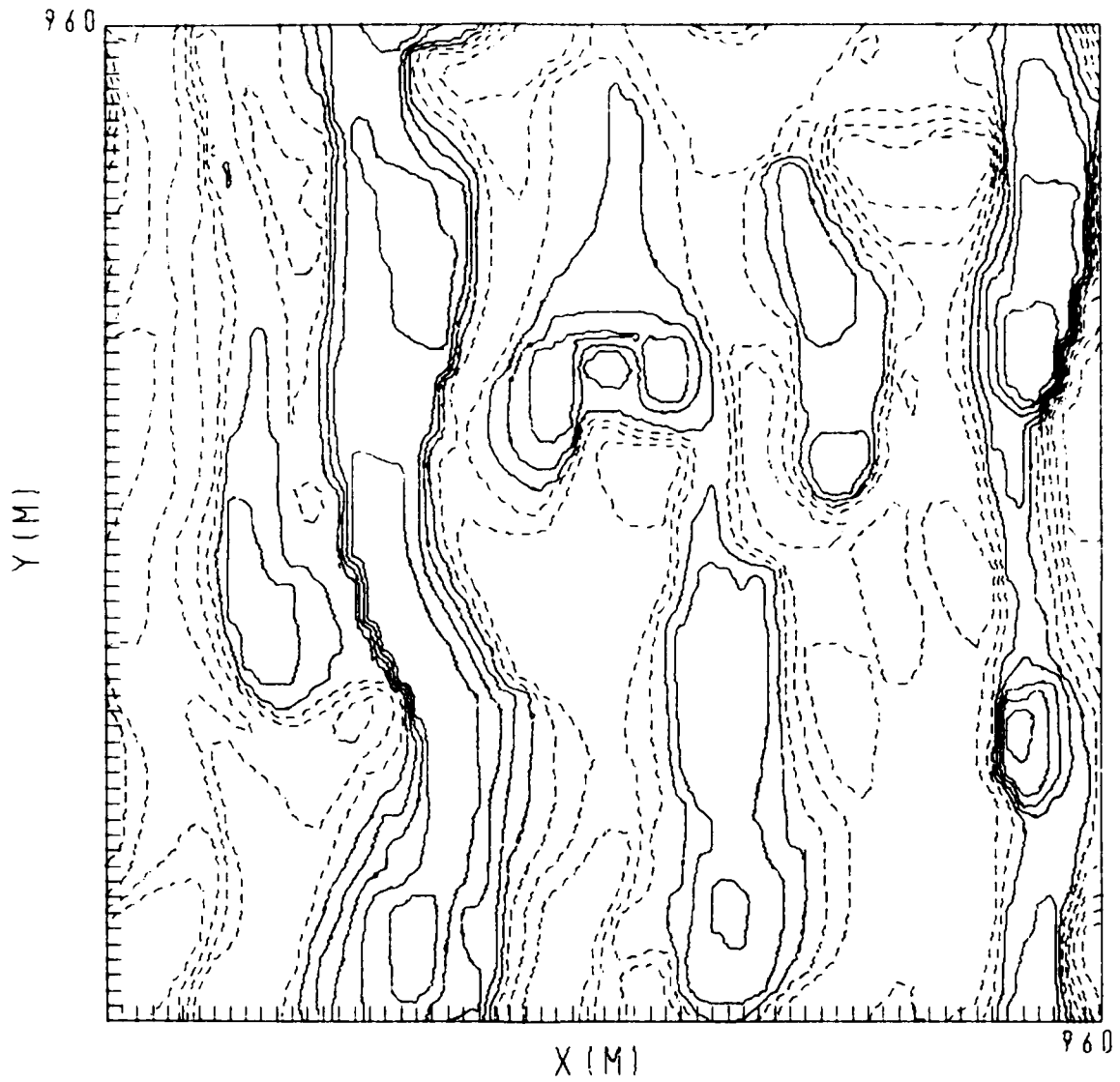


Fig. 6 — Same as Figure 5 but at $t = 2000$ sec. Maximum enhancement and depletion are $+15\%$ and -11% .

4500 SEC

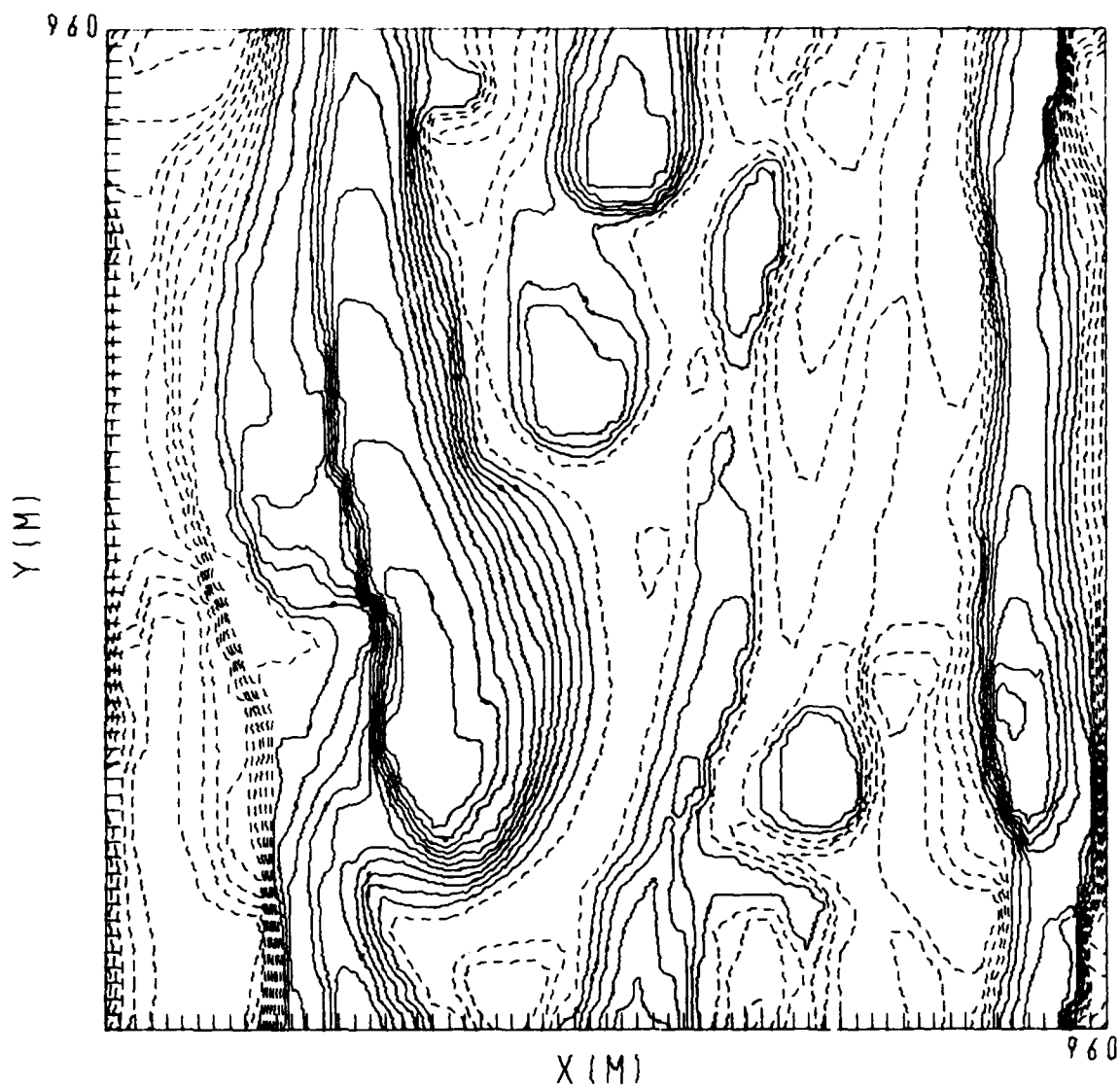


Fig. 7 — Same as Figure 5 but at $t = 4500$ sec. Maximum enhancement and depletion are + 66% and - 56%.

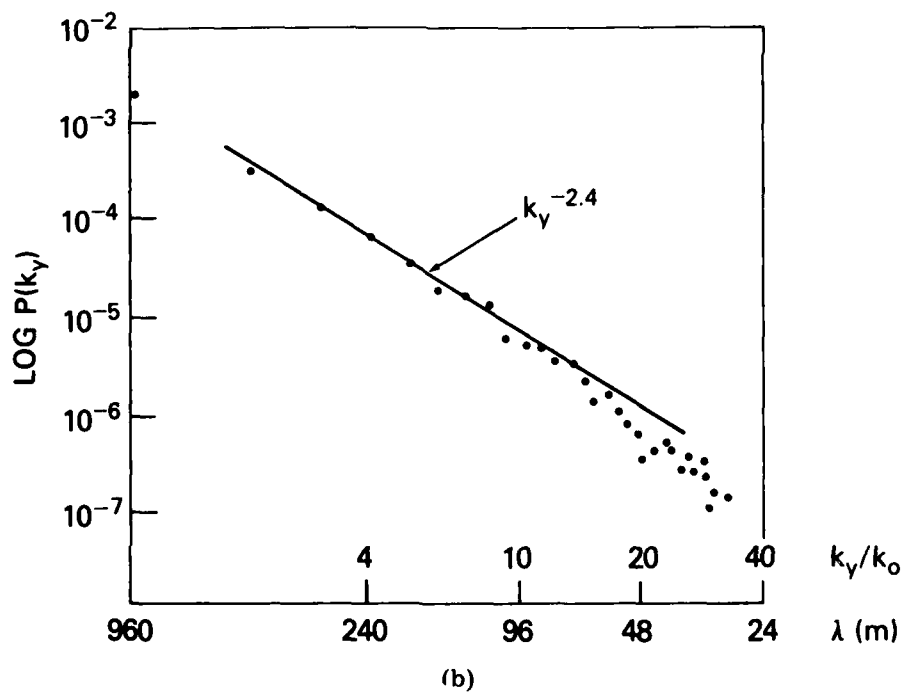
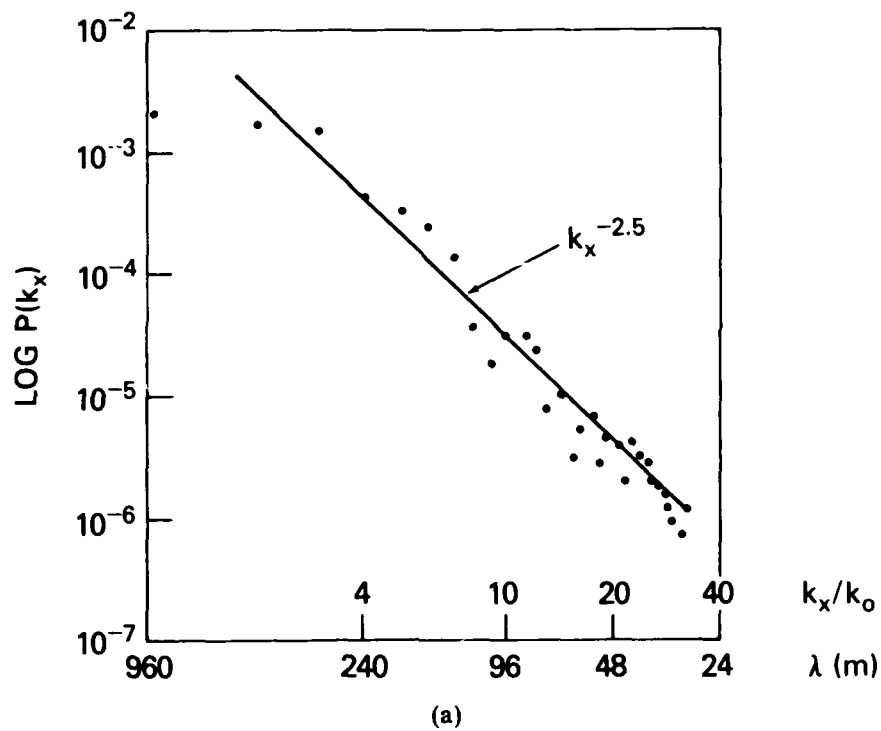


Fig. 8 — One-dimensional (a) horizontal $P(k_x)$ and (b) vertical $P(k_y)$ spatial power spectra versus k_x and k_y , respectively, for $L = 8$ km at $t = 4000$ sec. The solid lines are least squares fits to the numerical simulations (dots) and $k_0 = 2\pi/960$ m.

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